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Djagoun, C A M S ; Codron, D ; Sealy, J ; Mensah, G A ; Sinsin, B

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# Stable carbon isotope analysis of the diets of West African bovids in Pendjari Biosphere Reserve, Northern Benin

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**Bovid diets have been studied for decades, but debate still exists about the diets of many species, in part because of geographical or habitat-related dietary variations. In this study we used stable carbon isotope analyses of faeces to explore the seasonal dietary preferences of 11 bovid species from a West African savanna, the Pendjari Biosphere Reserve (PBR), along the browser/grazer (or  $C_3/C_4$ ) continuum. We compare our carbon isotope values with those for eastern and southern African bovids, as well as with dietary predictions based on continent-wide averages derived from field studies. Oribi and reedbuck, expected to be grazers were found to be predominantly  $C_3$ -feeders (browsers) in the PBR. Bushbuck, common duiker and red-flanked duiker consumed more  $C_4$  grass than reported in previous studies. When comparing wet and dry season diets, kob, roan and oribi showed the least variation in  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  plant consumed proportions, while red-flanked duiker, bushbuck, reedbuck and waterbuck showed the most marked shifts. This study shows that animals in the better-studied eastern and southern African savannas do not exhibit the full range of possible dietary adaptations. Inclusion of data from a wider geographical area to include less well-studied regions will inform our overall picture of bovid dietary ecology.**

**Key words:** diet, bovid, graze, browse, savanna.

## INTRODUCTION

African Bovidae (Mammalia: Ruminantia) represent some of the most conspicuously diverse family of large herbivores globally. More than 80 species inhabit the continent, and because of their large size make up an important structural and functional component of the biomass of many ecosystems (Kingdon 1997). Considerable field research has focused on the feeding ecology of African bovid species, to help understand both their evolutionary adaptations and their roles in ecosystem processes (du Toit 2003; Clauss 2008; Smit 2011). Research on diet composition and diet quality has revealed that coexistence is achieved primarily through resource partitioning, in particular the separation of dietary niches along a browser/grazer continuum, with three guilds typically recognized: browsers, grazers and mixed-feeders (Hofmann & Stewart 1972; Jarman 1974; Owen-Smith 1997; du Toit 2003; Clauss 2008).

Recent reviews and evidence from stable carbon isotopes have, however, reached dissimilar conclusions regarding the diets of many species, and differ in their respective interpretations of the heuristic value of the browser/grazer classification scheme (Gagnon & Chew 2000; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a; Cerling *et al.* 2003; Codron *et al.* 2007a). One source of this confusion is the vast and often contradictory literature on bovid feeding ecology. To address this problem, Gagnon & Chew (2000) undertook a critical literature review in an attempt to synthesize what is known about diets of African bovids, an important step towards understanding bovid trophic patterns. Yet that review was hindered by the nature of the available literature which, because of the variety of methodologies employed by researchers in the field, and the fact that most published studies are isolated in space and time (Owen-Smith 1988, 1997), comprised data that are not necessarily comparable. More recently, stable carbon isotope studies (yielding data that are more comparable across geographical

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and temporal boundaries) revealed differences for several species not only when compared with predictions from the literature, but also between southern and East African populations (Cerling *et al.* 2003; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a; Codron *et al.* 2007a). These findings imply that diets of many species are habitat-specific, and that global averages – as often used in comparative evolutionary and ecological studies (Clauss 2008; Codron & Clauss 2010) – may be of limited value.

Numerous methods exist to delineate dietary patterns of wild animal populations, all with certain strengths and limitations. Stable isotope analysis is a more recent, yet by now common tool for studying the feeding ecology of wildlife (Crawford *et al.* 2008), which has the advantage of providing more comparable data for multiple populations over various space and time scales. Stable isotope analysis has proved especially useful for investigating the diets of mammalian herbivores in tropical environments, due to the fact that their two major food groups, *i.e.* browse (trees, shrubs, forbs) and grass (monocots), have highly distinct, non-overlapping carbon-isotope compositions (Deines 1980). In these environments, most browse plants use the  $C_3$  photosynthetic pathway, whereas most grasses use the  $C_4$  pathway (Vogel 1978; Cerling & Harris 1999).  $C_3$  plants are consistently depleted in  $^{13}C$  relative to  $C_4$  plants (Ehleringer *et al.* 1991; Ehleringer & Monson 1993; Codron *et al.* 2005), and this difference is recorded in the body tissues and faeces of the herbivores that feed on them. The application of stable isotopes in feeding ecology has emerged as a powerful tool for partitioning herbivore diets into browsing and grazing components, and testing ecological/evolutionary hypotheses related to browsing and grazing (Tieszen *et al.* 1979; Cerling *et al.* 2003; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003b; Codron *et al.* 2007b).

Several studies in Africa have used the stable isotope technique to investigate diets of diverse herbivore taxa including antelope (Tieszen *et al.* 1979; Cerling & Harris 1999; Codron *et al.* 2006, 2007b,c, 2011a), elephants (Koch *et al.* 1995; Codron *et al.* 2011a), and suids (Cerling & Viehl 2004). Most of this research has focused on East and southern African savannas (Cerling *et al.* 2003; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a; Codron *et al.* 2006, 2007a, 2011a,b), with little emphasis placed on savannas in West Africa. In fact, even beyond stable isotope investigations, empirical data for West African bovid ecology is generally lacking (Schuette *et al.* 1998; Kassa *et al.* 2007). Given the

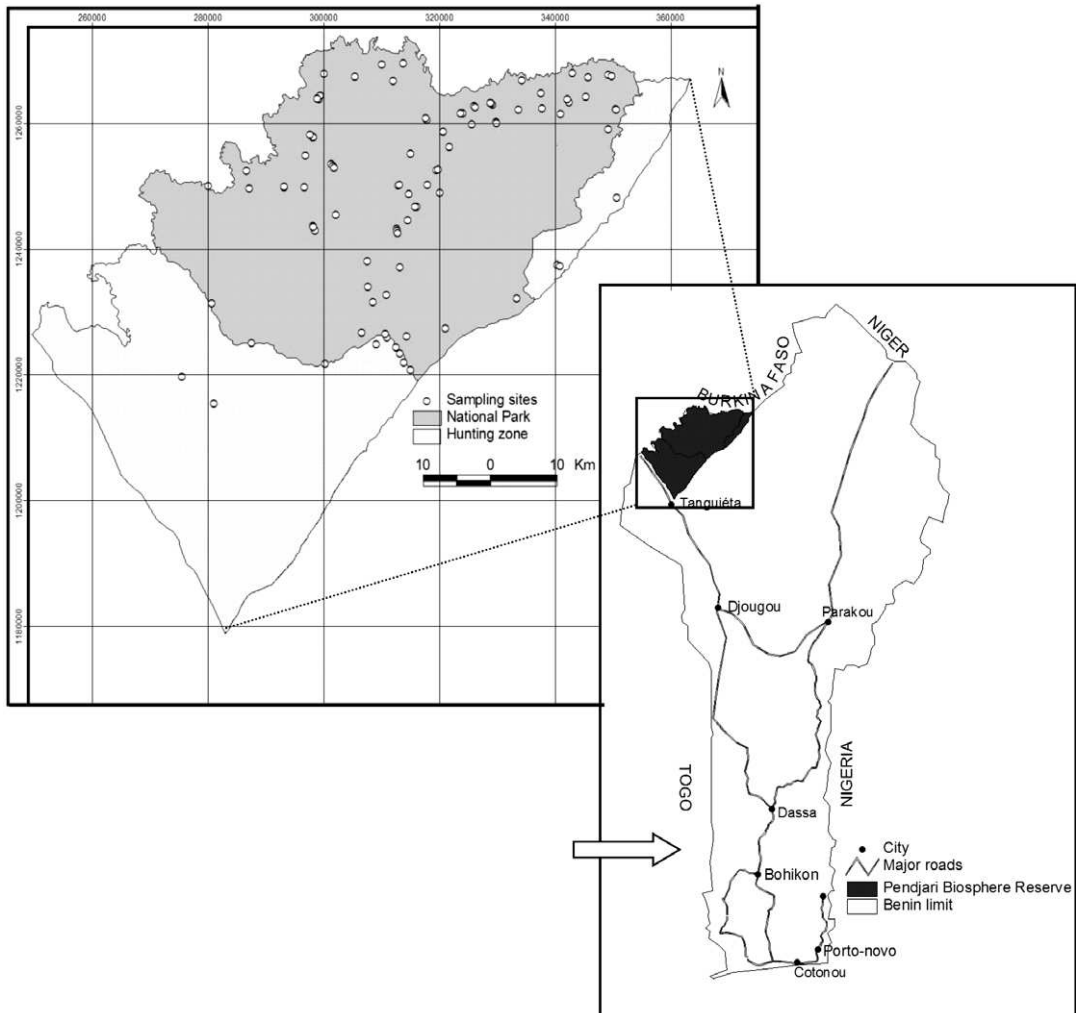
obvious value of resolving habitat-specific diets of many species (Codron *et al.* 2007a), and the unique climatic and habitat conditions of West African savannas (Kassa *et al.* 2007), a comparative study of bovids between this and other savanna regions is warranted.

In this study, we use stable carbon isotope analysis of faeces to explore the diets of several bovid species living in a West African savanna (Pendjari Biosphere Reserve, Benin) along the browser/grazer (or  $C_3/C_4$ ) continuum, and on a seasonal time-scale. We compare results with dietary predictions for these species based on continent-wide averages derived from field studies (Gagnon & Chew 2000), and with carbon isotope data for East and southern African bovids (Cerling *et al.* 2003; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a; Codron *et al.* 2007a).

## METHODS

The Pendjari Biosphere Reserve (PBR) is situated in northwestern Benin (10°30' to 11°30'N; 0°50' to 2°00'E; Fig. 1). The PBR was declared a Game Reserve in 1954, and upgraded to the National Park of Pendjari (NPP) in 1961. Today it comprises a strictly protected core area (the Pendjari National Park covering 2660 km<sup>2</sup>) and two adjacent hunting zones: Konkombri and Pendjari which are, respectively, on the eastern and southwestern sides of the park (covering together 1971 km<sup>2</sup>). Climate is tropical, with a seven-month dry period between late October and early April. The PBR is located in the Sudanian Zone with a single wet season from April/May to October and one dry season from November until March. Mean annual precipitation is 1000 mm, with 60% falling between July and September (Sinsin *et al.* 2002). The mean annual temperature is 27°C (Verschuren 1988). During the rainy season numerous small natural ponds are full of water, as well as large ones in the centre of the National Park, namely Tiabiga, Fogou, Mondri, Diwouni, Yangouali and Bali. During the dry season, the ponds attract a variety of animals, especially large mammals searching for water.

The dominant vegetation type is savanna interspersed by some patches of dry forests with deciduous trees (Sokpon *et al.* 2001). Savanna vegetation is burnt every year by management to provide fresh pasture to herbivores that dominate the reserve, provide visibility to wildlife tourists and hunters who visit mostly during the dry season, and avoid uncontrolled mid-or late dry season fires that spread from surrounding villages or that are lit by poachers to mask illegal activities.



**Fig. 1.** Map of Benin showing the position of Pendjari Biosphere Reserve and the faecal sampling sites.

### Sample collection

Faecal samples of 11 bovid species were collected from PBR over six months, from December 2011 to May 2012, extending over both late dry and earlier wet seasons. A total of five samples was expected to be collected for each species per month. However, this sample number could not be attained for topi (*Damaliscus korrigum*), red-flanked duiker (*Cephalophus rufilatus*), common duiker (*Sylvicapra grimmia*) and oribi (*Ourebia ourebi*) due to the difficulty of observing them in the field (see details in Table 1). Species affiliation and freshness of each sample was determined by an experienced ranger of the PBR according to the method of Stuart (1994), and location of the dung samples was recorded using a Global

Positioning System (Fig. 1). Shape and size of most dung is species-specific and errors of identification are very unlikely. However, pellet-type dung may be confused, particularly between hartebeest (*Alcelaphus buselaphus*) and topi and between reedbuck (*Redunca redunca*), bushbuck (*Tragelaphus scriptus*) and within duiker species, as suggested by Hibert *et al.* (2008, 2011). For those species, faecal sampling involved locating animals and then following on foot. In some cases, dung samples were collected from bedding sites, after waiting for animals to get up and move away. We also collected plant samples over the same study period to provide baseline isotopic data for PBR vegetation, as this is the first study in the area to use the carbon isotope approach. Following

**Table 1.** Dry-to-wet season mean faecal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values  $\pm$  1 S.D. for bovids from Pendjari Biosphere Reserve, and estimated  $\text{C}_4$  fraction of the diet.

Species	Dry season			Wet season			$\chi^2$
	<i>n</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$ (‰)	Mean % $\text{C}_4$ in diet	<i>n</i>	$\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{VPDB}}$ (‰)	Mean % $\text{C}_4$ in diet	
<i>Syncerus caffer</i>	20	$-16.5 \pm 1.82$	82	10	$-16.0 \pm 1.64$	84	1.973
<i>Tragelaphus scriptus</i>	20	$-27.2 \pm 4.05$	32	10	$-21.5 \pm 7.10$	45	9.102*
<i>Alcelaphus buselaphus</i>	20	$-15.5 \pm 2.26$	89	10	$-16.8 \pm 3.25$	80	7.009
<i>Damaliscus korrigum</i>	19	$-14.7 \pm 2.19$	95	7	$-14.4 \pm 1.19$	96	1.343
<i>Hippotragus equinus</i>	20	$-14.5 \pm 1.90$	96	10	$-15.5 \pm 2.53$	88	2.286
<i>Kobus ellipsiprymnus</i>	20	$-19.0 \pm 2.91$	64	10	$-15.8 \pm 2.93$	89	8.546*
<i>Kobus kob</i>	20	$-14.8 \pm 0.94$	95	10	$-13.9 \pm 0.62$	100	2.597
<i>Redunca redunca</i>	20	$-21.3 \pm 7.80$	47	10	$-25.2 \pm 5.13$	19	8.454*
<i>Ourebia ourebi</i>	20	$-27.3 \pm 0.39$	1	8	$-26.6 \pm 2.58$	6	2.600
<i>Sylvicapra grimmia</i>	20	$-24.5 \pm 3.68$	21	7	$-21.6 \pm 3.32$	46	6.704
<i>Cephalophus rufulatus</i>	14	$-28.6 \pm 0.57$	0	8	$-25.1 \pm 4.24$	18	6.941*

\*Maximum likelihood chi-square test indicates significant seasonal shift in diet ( $P < 0.05$ ).

methods similar to those employed by Codron *et al.* (2005), plant samples were collected from five ten square metre study plots across the study area, covering all vegetation and topographic habitat types. Plant specimens representing the local diversity of tree, forb and grass species were collected at each site; we did not sample all species but the three most dominant plant species within each plot. Over the whole six-month sampling period, a total of 270 plant specimens were collected, comprising 20 different species of tree, 13 forb/herb species and five grass species.

#### Analysis

Faeces were oven-dried at 60°C and ground in a Wiley mill to pass through a 40 mm mesh screen. Samples were then weighed into tin cups to an accuracy of 1 microgram on a Sartorius micro balance. The samples were combusted in a Flash 2000 organic elemental analyser and the gases passed to a Delta V Plus isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS) via a Conflo IV gas control unit (all three instruments manufactured by Thermo Scientific, Bremen, Germany).  $^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$  ratios are expressed as  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in parts per thousand (‰), relative to the Vienna PeeDee Belemnite (VPDB) standard., according to the formula

$$\delta^{13}\text{C} = \left( \frac{^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}_{\text{sample}}}{^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}_{\text{standard}}} - 1 \right) \times 10^3.$$

During the analyses, standard deviation for repeated measurements of the in-house standards was less than 0.15‰.

We estimated the percentage  $\text{C}_4$  fraction (grass)

of the diet represented by each faecal sample using the following simple linear mixing model

$$\% \text{C}_4 \text{ in diet} = \frac{\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{faeces}} - \Delta\delta^{13}\text{C} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{C}_3 \text{ plants}}}{\delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{C}_4 \text{ plants}} - \delta^{13}\text{C}_{\text{C}_3 \text{ plants}}} \times 100,$$

where  $\Delta\delta^{13}\text{C}$  represents the isotopic difference (discrimination) between diet and faeces. Diet-faeces discrimination data were taken from recent controlled-feeding experiments with goats, which revealed a mean of  $-0.5\text{‰}$  and a range of  $-0.9\text{‰}$  to  $+0.3\text{‰}$  (Codron *et al.* 2011a). This diet-faeces discrimination range does not appear to change between species with different digestive physiologies, nor between animals fed  $\text{C}_3$  browse,  $\text{C}_3$  grass, and  $\text{C}_4$  grass diets (Sponheimer *et al.* 2003b; Codron *et al.* 2005; Codron *et al.* 2011a). The model endpoints were based on seasonally-specific medians of  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values from the local  $\text{C}_3$  and  $\text{C}_4$  vegetation collected over the same time periods as the faeces. The equation above provides an estimate of  $\text{C}_4$ -intake, but is not an accurate index of diet because of variation in  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ , in carbon isotope composition of dietary baselines (plants), and stochasticity (Post 2002; Cerling *et al.* 2003; Codron *et al.* 2005, 2007b). To account for this variation in our analysis, we varied  $\Delta^{13}\text{C}$  values randomly between the published maximum and minimum values reported by Codron *et al.* (2011a), and  $\text{C}_3$  and  $\text{C}_4$  plant endpoint values between their respective 25th to 75th interquartile ranges. We report on means and 95% confidence limits derived from 1000 iterations. The average 95% confidence interval derived from this procedure was  $\sim 18\%$ , which is similar to an error of



$\pm 10\%$  estimated previously (Codron *et al.* 2007a). Thus, the data were binned in intervals of 20% (*i.e.* categories of <10%  $C_4$  intake, 10–30%, 30–50%, 50–70%, 70–90%, and >90%  $C_4$ ; the <10% and >90% categories include animals eating only  $C_3$  or only  $C_4$  foods). We tested for seasonal shifts in species diets based on the frequency distribution of individual samples in each % $C_4$  bin, using maximum likelihood chi-square tests. The number of dung samples represented for each species varies widely between months. To increase statistical power, we grouped data into two seasons: dry (December to March) and wet (April and May). We then checked whether the results for species from PBR differed from predictions derived from field studies (FS) in either season by comparing their seasonal means with means reported in Gagnon & Chew (2000). Note that Gagnon & Chew (2000) reported on % fruits, % dicots, and % monocots in the diet: we assume here that monocots are equivalent to %  $C_4$  grass in the diet (see also Cerling *et al.* 2003). Based on the analytical error inherent in carbon isotope approaches to diet described above, we consider two values to be different only if they differ by 10% or more, as suggested by Codron *et al.* (2007a). Finally, we made similar comparisons with data from Cerling *et al.* (2003); Sponheimer *et al.* (2003a), and Codron *et al.* (2007a) to determine whether bovid diets in PBR differ from those of their counterparts in East African (EA) and southern African (SA) savannas, respectively.

## RESULTS

### Patterns of seasonal diet variation

$C_3$  plants (tree/shrub and forb) and  $C_4$  grasses from PBR were as expected for plants following the  $C_3$ -photosynthetic pathway (mean =  $-27.14\text{‰} \pm 1.19$ ,  $n = 60$ ), and  $C_4$ -photosynthetic pathways (mean =  $-14.20\text{‰} \pm 2.11$ ,  $n = 30$ ), respectively. These figures did not change temporally, means for  $C_3$  plants ranging between  $-26.33\text{‰}$  and  $-27.74\text{‰}$  across different months, and similarly monthly means for  $C_4$  grasses ranged from  $-12.29\text{‰}$  to  $-14.37\text{‰}$ . Further, our approach to modelling bovid diets incorporates variations in plant  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values across months, and between  $C_3$  and  $C_4$  groups, and so any variations are unlikely to influence our dietary analysis in a major way. Savanna faecal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values in the dry season reflected the  $C_4$ -dominated diets of savanna grazers, as in buffalo (*Syncerus caffer*) (mean =

$-16.5\text{‰} \pm 1.82$ ,  $n = 20$ , ~82%  $C_4$  in diet), red hartebeest (mean =  $-15.5\text{‰} \pm 2.26$ ,  $n = 20$ , ~89%  $C_4$  in diet), roan antelope (*Hippotragus equinus*) (mean =  $-14.5\text{‰} \pm 1.90$ ,  $n = 20$ , ~88%  $C_4$  in diet), kob (*Kobus kob*) (mean =  $-14.8\text{‰} \pm 0.94$ ,  $n = 10$ , ~95%  $C_4$  in diet), topi (mean =  $-14.7\text{‰} \pm 2.19$ ,  $n = 19$ , ~95%  $C_4$  in diet) and waterbuck (*Kobus ellipsiprymnus*) (mean =  $-19.0\text{‰} \pm 2.91$ ,  $n = 20$ , ~64%  $C_4$  in diet). Amongst these grazers only waterbuck show a significant seasonal shift in mean estimated %  $C_4$  ( $\chi^2 = 8.546$ , d.f. = 3,  $P = 0.035$ ) with  $C_4$ -intake reaching 89% in the wet season (Table 1). Five bovid species had fecal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values reflecting  $C_3$ -dominated diets: oribi (*Ourebia ourebi*) (mean =  $-27.3\text{‰} \pm 0.39$ ,  $n = 20$ ), red-flanked duiker (*Cephalophus rufulatus*) (mean =  $-28.6\text{‰} \pm 0.57$ ,  $n = 14$ ), bushbuck (*Tragelaphus scriptus*) (mean =  $-27.2\text{‰} \pm 4.05$ ,  $n = 20$ ), common duiker (mean =  $-24.5\text{‰} \pm 3.68$ ,  $n = 20$ ) and reedbuck (mean =  $-21.3\text{‰} \pm 7.80$ ,  $n = 20$ ). Three of these species – red-flanked duiker, reedbuck and bushbuck – showed significant seasonal diet switches ( $\chi^2 = 6.941$ , d.f. = 3,  $P = 0.008$ ;  $\chi^2 = 8.454$ , d.f. = 3,  $P = 0.037$ ;  $\chi^2 = 9.102$ , d.f. = 3,  $P = 0.028$ , respectively) in mean %  $C_4$ -intake between the dry season (mean %  $C_4$  intake for red-flanked duiker 0, for reedbuck = 47, and for bushbuck = 32) and wet seasons (mean %  $C_4$  intake for red-flanked duiker = 18, reedbuck = 19, and bushbuck = 45). More extensive isotopic, and hence dietary, variation was observed at monthly scales (Fig. 2).

Seasonal variations were also recorded amongst  $C_4$ -feeders. Roan antelope and hartebeest consumed only 30–50%  $C_4$  in January and April, and a similarly low range of  $C_4$  intake was recorded for topi in January. At monthly scales diets were even more variable, with lower %  $C_4$  intake occurring in several months for buffalo (ranging up to 50–70%  $C_3$  in January) and waterbuck (in December, January February ranging up to 50–70%  $C_3$ ). Kob was found to maintain a more-or-less constant high  $C_4$ -intake throughout; however a small amount of  $C_3$ -intake (10–30%) occurred in December and February. Fidelity in  $C_3$ -intake (browsing) was found at monthly level for the red-flanked duiker and oribi, with some  $C_4$  grazing occurring only in April (10–30%  $C_4$ ) and May (10–30%  $C_4$ ), respectively. Common duiker was found to feed on the range of 50–70%  $C_4$  in some months (March and May). The most striking shifts occurred in reedbuck and bushbuck, from

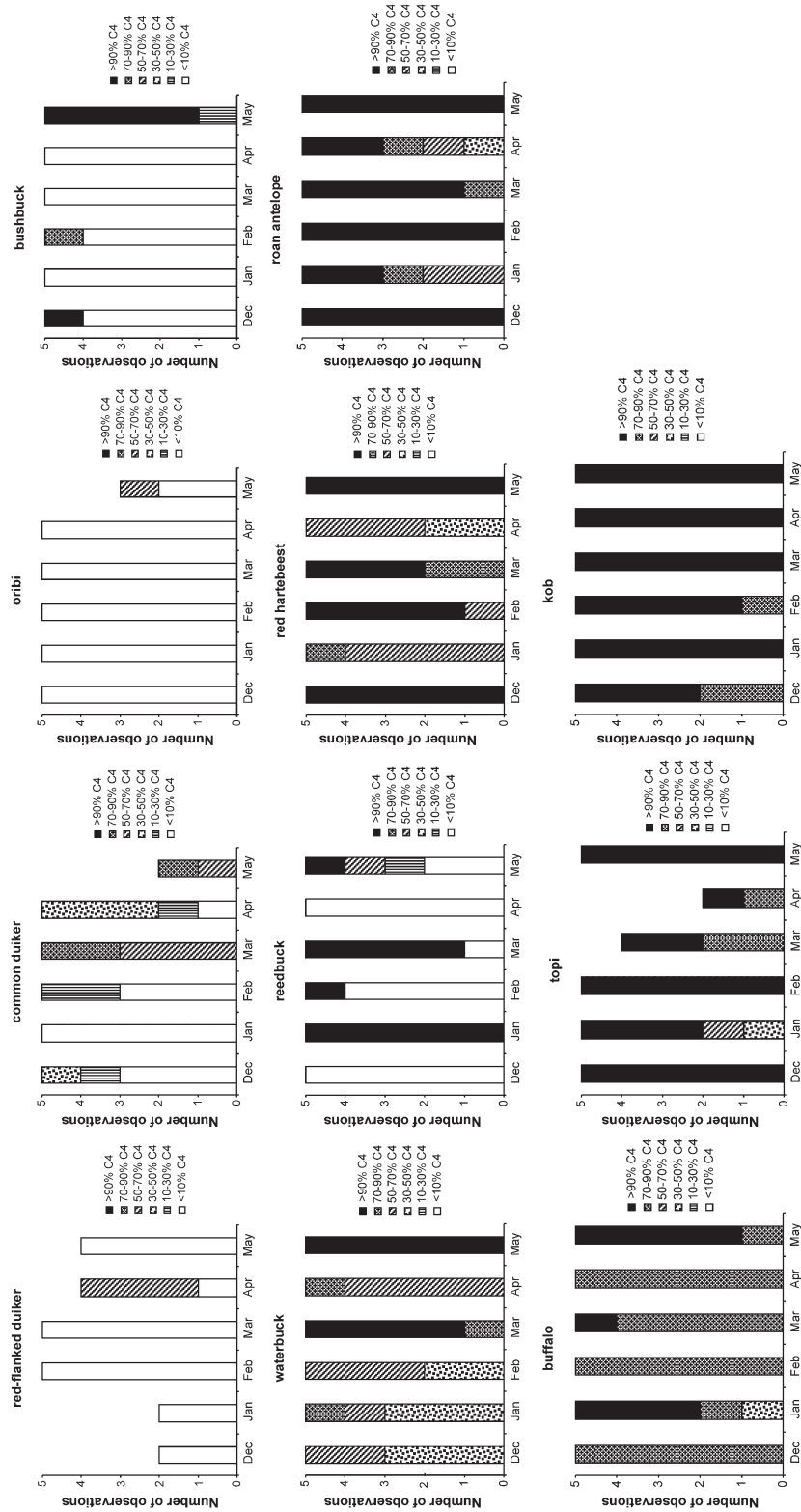


Fig. 2. Monthly variation of % C<sub>4</sub> (i.e. categories are <10% C<sub>4</sub>, 10–30%, 30–50%, 50–70%, 70–90%, and >90% C<sub>4</sub>) in diets of 11 bovid species from Pendjari Biosphere Reserve.

**Table 2.** Estimated % C<sub>4</sub>-intake of 11 bovid species from Pendjari Biosphere Reserve (PBR) compared with other savanna regions in Africa

Species	Comparative % C <sub>4</sub> in diet					
	PBR	Field studies (FS)	East Africa (EA)	Southern Africa (SA)	Kruger (SA): dry	Kruger (SA): wet
<i>Syncerus caffer</i>	83	78	100	88	89	88
<i>Tragelaphus scriptus</i>	38	0	0	10	—	—
<i>Alcelaphus buselaphus</i>	84	75	100	98	90	89
<i>Damaliscus korrigum</i>	95	—	—	—	—	—
<i>Hippotragus equinus</i>	92	85	100	91	98	95
<i>Kobus ellipsiprymnus</i>	76	84	92	100	—	—
<i>Kobus kob</i>	97	95	95	—	—	—
<i>Redunca redunca</i>	33	95	100	—	—	—
<i>Ourebia ourebi</i>	3	82	84	90	—	—
<i>Sylvicapra grimmia</i>	33	12	0	2	—	—
<i>Cephalophus rufulatus</i>	9	1	—	—	—	—

Data for field studies are continent-wide averages of % monocots in diet reported in Gagnon & Chew (2000). Data from East Africa (EA) and southern Africa (SA) are means reported in Cerling *et al.* (2003) and Sponheimer *et al.* (2003a), respectively, and are derived from analyses of bones, teeth and hair. Figures for Kruger National Park in South Africa are from Codron *et al.* (2007a) and are derived from faeces.

pure C<sub>3</sub> feeding (<10% C<sub>4</sub>) in some months to >90% C<sub>4</sub> in others.

#### Comparison with continent-wide C<sub>4</sub> consumption by bovid species

Five species from PBR (buffalo, hartebeest, roan, kob and waterbuck) had mean % C<sub>4</sub> in diet similar to data derived from field studies (Table 2). Another four (bushbuck, common duiker, oribi and reedbuck) differed substantially (by >30%) from the continent-wide averages. Two species known to be primarily grazers elsewhere in Africa (reedbuck and oribi) had C<sub>3</sub>-dominated diets in PBR. A difference of more than 10% C<sub>4</sub> in diet was also found for buffalo from PBR compared with the same species from East Africa, and for red hartebeest and waterbuck in comparison with both east and southern Africa. Percent C<sub>4</sub> intake by kob and roan antelope did not change across different regions of Africa (Table 2). There is no difference between PBR and Kruger National Park for buffalo, roan and red hartebeest, even when the data are separated into dry and wet seasons.

#### DISCUSSION

We analysed the proportions of C<sub>3</sub> browse:C<sub>4</sub> grass in the diets of 11 bovid species from Pendjari Biosphere Reserve (PBR), Benin, West Africa. Of these, eight were expected to be grazers (buffalo, reedbuck, waterbuck, hartebeest, kob, oribi, roan and topi), and three browsers (red-flanked duiker, bushbuck and common duiker), based on data in the literature (*e.g.* Gagnon & Chew 2000). How-

ever, most literature data are derived from studies in East and/or southern African savannas. Carbon isotope results from faeces of PBR bovids implied that only six species (buffalo, waterbuck, hartebeest, kob, roan and topi) had primarily C<sub>4</sub> grass-dominated diets, whereas five species focused largely on C<sub>3</sub> vegetation, *i.e.* browse (reedbuck, oribi, red-flanked duiker, bushbuck and common duiker). This suggests differences between bovid species diet at PBR compared with other African regions, including southern and East African savannas where previous carbon isotope-based research was carried out (Cerling *et al.* 2003; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a; Codron *et al.* 2007a) and thus diets are not constant across space. The results also demonstrate temporal diet switches at monthly and seasonal scales, indicating that even supposed stenotopic grazers and browsers can have highly variable diets.

One source of uncertainty could come from the misidentification of faeces. This was minimized by using a sampling protocol (see details in method section) whereby faeces of species whose dung is easy to misidentify were collected from animals under observation. In the case of the two species that presented the most unexpected results (reedbuck and oribi), the chance of misidentification was further reduced by a *post hoc* protocol: older dung samples were compared to fresh samples that were identified with certainty, based on the size, shape and indentation of the pellets. Additionally samples were then double-checked (blind test) by experienced local trackers and



finally checked again using Stuart & Stuart (2000).

Since faeces consist largely of the undigested portion of an animal's diet, geochemical proxies from this material might be expected to be biased towards less-digestible food items. This does not, however, appear to be a significant problem for carbon-isotope studies (Codron *et al.* 2007b), as controlled-feeding trials have shown that the  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  values of faeces and herbage ingested are closely related (Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a; Codron *et al.* 2011a). Additionally, Codron & Codron (2008) have shown that spatio-temporal patterns of variation in plant and faecal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  are very strongly correlated, demonstrating fidelity with which faecal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  reflects the isotopic composition of foods consumed. However, sources of variation such as differences between plant species, plant parts, and small differences in diet-consumer (faeces)  $^{13}\text{C}$ -discrimination between species and environments may influence results (Sponheimer *et al.* 2003b; Codron *et al.* 2005). For these reasons, the use of mixing models that take into account these variations, as done in this study, inspire greater confidence in results. Further, in this study we made use of data bins resulting from mixing models, rather than focusing on specific values of  $\text{C}_4$  intake as they are only estimates within  $\pm 10\%$  error. Finally, we acknowledge that comparisons between our data and those derived from East and southern Africa may be complicated because PBR data are derived from faeces, representing only short-term dietary information, whereas some of the other studies are based on longer-term body tissues like hair, bones and teeth. Comparative data from Kruger National Park in South Africa are based on faeces, and are in broad agreement with results from hard tissues, suggesting that there should at least be general congruence amongst datasets at broad, multi-species scales such as employed in the current study (Codron *et al.* 2007b).

The analysis of short-term materials, such as faeces, revealed subtle changes in diets of browsers and grazers from PBR at seasonal (wet/dry season) and monthly time scales. Grazing species that showed very little evidence of temporal diet switching were topi, kob and roan antelope: these species consumed high proportions of  $\text{C}_4$  grass throughout. These results contradict an earlier study of West African grazers, based at Nazinga ranch in Burkina Faso, which reported that the proportion of browse plants in the diets of grazer species increased during dry seasons as grasses

reach senescence (Schuette *et al.* 1998). Although in PBR the grass layer also became substantially reduced over the dry season, palatable grasses remained in abundance along the natural pond and river margins for highly water-dependent species such as kob, which need to drink daily and forage not far away from water sources (Estes 1991; Kingdon 1997; Smit 2011). Also, after grasses had dried out during the hot, dry season, fires during the middle of the cool, dry season removed old growth and promoted re-growth of some perennial grasses (Van de Vijver *et al.* 1999; Archibald *et al.* 2005; Klop *et al.* 2007; Sensenig *et al.* savanna 2010), which may have been utilized by the topi and roan antelope to supply the dry season demand. Studies elsewhere in Africa revealed that roan antelope are monotonous  $\text{C}_4$ -grazers throughout the seasonal cycle (Codron & Codron 2008; Codron *et al.* 2009). Less is known about topi diets, although they are generally perceived to be obligate grazers because of their preference for grassland habitats (Murray & Brown 1993). Although feeding habits of the topi are little known, those of its close relative, the tsessebe (*Damaliscus lunatus*), are better understood. Tsessebe are reported to consume pure or near-pure  $\text{C}_4$  grass-based diets throughout the year ( $\sim 98\% \text{C}_4$ ) (Codron *et al.* 2009). Thus the lack of seasonality in topi diets at PBR appears to be similar to what has been observed in its close relatives in other African savannas. Buffalo and hartebeest are also grazers, and though they show slightly more seasonal variation than topi, kob and roan antelope, this remains very limited. Similar results have been reported for buffalo from Kruger National Park in South Africa (Codron *et al.* 2007a).

Among species with predominantly  $\text{C}_4$ -grass diets, the only species at PBR to show significant seasonal variation in the proportion of  $\text{C}_4$  material ingested is the waterbuck, which changed from a diet comprising approximately 89%  $\text{C}_4$  grass in the wet season to 64%  $\text{C}_4$  grass in the dry season. A recent study on the feeding ecology of waterbuck in the Pendjari Biosphere Reserve has also shown browse-based feeding behavior during the dry season, with waterbuck switching to annual grasses (*Oryza barthii*, *Diheteropogon amplexans*, *Hyparrhenia involucrata*) only after the first rains (Kassa *et al.* 2007). The drop in grass nutritional quality in dry seasons (*e.g.* Codron *et al.* 2006) would account for the observed diet shift in waterbuck. The absence of a seasonal diet shift in

grazers other than waterbuck could be due to the fact that waterbuck require about four times more protein than other similar-sized grazers (Taylor *et al.* 1969), and are thus more likely to be more compelled to switch during the dry seasons.

Amongst expected browsing bovid species from PBR (bushbuck, red-flanked duiker, and common duiker), bushbuck and red-flanked duiker increased their % C<sub>4</sub> intake significantly from dry to wet season. Common duiker did not show a directional seasonal shift, but their diets did vary across months. A possible explanation for the change in bushbuck and red-flanked duiker could be that both species need high quality food all the time, and therefore have adapted to optimize their diet to maintain high protein content and low fibre (Van Rooyen 1992; Meissner *et al.* 1996; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a; Codron *et al.* 2006). Thus, despite being primarily browsers, both species are able to tolerate a wider variety of foods, including grass during the wet season, while ecological diet plasticity was most pronounced in the common duiker. Reedbuck and oribi from the PBR had substantially more negative faecal  $\delta^{13}\text{C}$  than expected from the literature (Gagnon & Chew 2000; Cerling *et al.* 2003; Sponheimer *et al.* 2003a) reflecting predominantly C<sub>3</sub> diets. Previous studies have reported small amounts of dicots in the diets of oribi, especially during the dry season (Reilly *et al.* 1990; McCann *et al.* 2006), but the PBR oribi were almost pure C<sub>3</sub> browsers, with the least variation between wet and dry seasons of any of the species studied. Identification of the dicots consumed was not possible in this study. We suspect that they consist mainly of forbs (legumes and others) rather than leaves from woody plants, but this needs to be confirmed by further studies.

Given the discrepancies in % C<sub>4</sub> in the diets of bovids from PBR compared with literature for other parts of Africa, it is clear that there is spatio-temporal dietary flux in many bovid species. Bovid diets are, to some extent, habitat-specific and averaging of % monocots in diet from continent-wide field studies does not adequately represent dietary diversity among African bovid species. Further research using material such as bones, teeth and hair, which preserve longer-term records, could help us to understand the nature and extent of dietary variation amongst African bovids.

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